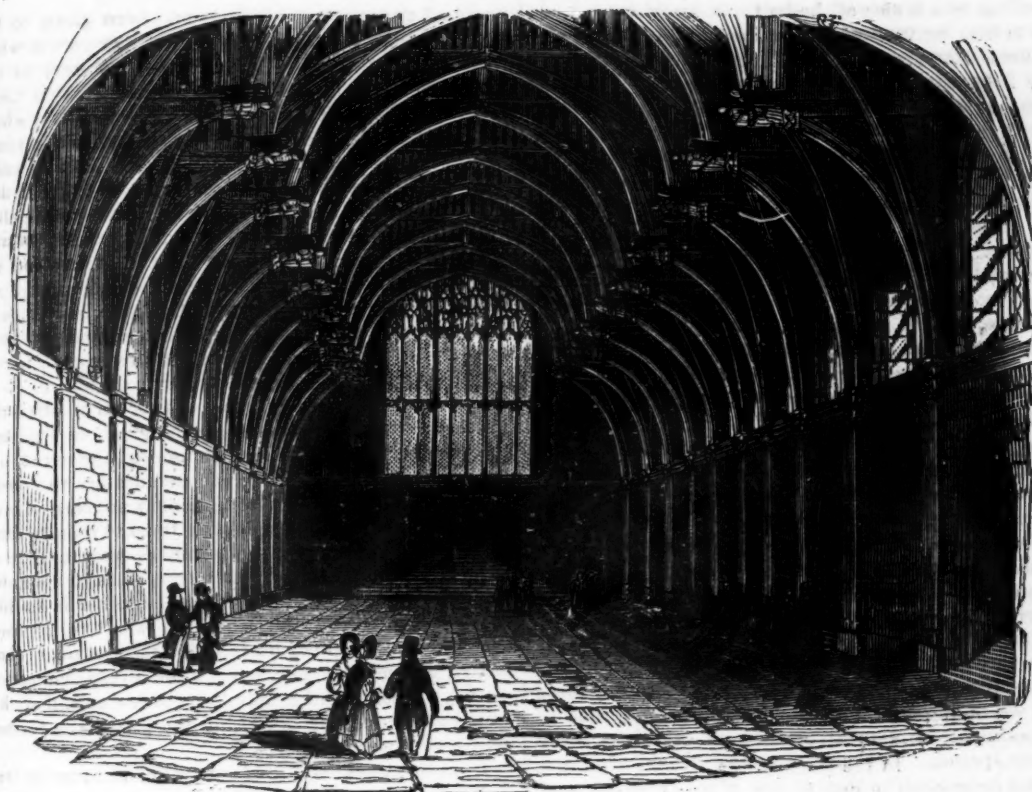




WESTMINSTER HALL AND ITS HISTORICAL ASSOCIATIONS. I.



INTERIOR WESTMINSTER HALL.

"ORIGINALLY built by King William Rufus," says Mr. Britton, "strengthened and enlarged by Richard the Second, new fronted and repaired early in the reign of George the Fourth, and internally renovated, in respect to its stone-work, within the last two years, this magnificent structure forms one of the most imposing objects in the British metropolis; and whether considered in respect to its national associations, or to the skill and science displayed in its construction, it is alike interesting to the historian, the architect, and the antiquary."

This noble Hall, as most of our readers are probably aware, is situated in Palace Yard, and forms one portion of an extensive cluster of buildings, appropriated as courts of law, houses of parliament, &c. Its interior length, from north to south, is 240 feet—breadth, from east to west, 68 feet—and height about 90 feet. The timber-framed roof of this edifice has been for centuries an object of admiration, for the skill displayed in its construction. The timbers are all exposed to view: "the architect," as has been observed, "did not attempt to conceal this roof with a ceiling; but, justly proud of his ingenuity in construction, exposed the whole to view, carved and ornamented on all the more prominent parts."

The hall now presents a spacious, unencumbered

appearance; but a considerable space at the south end of it was occupied, a few years ago, by the Courts of Chancery and King's Bench, which were separated from each other by a flight of steps, and a passage communicating with a landing-place, leading to the House of Commons. There was, during the early part of last century, a range of counters, book-cases, &c., running up each side of the hall. These were hired by book and print-sellers, mathematical instrument-makers, haberdashers, sempstresses, &c., who carried on their respective occupations within the spacious area of the hall. These trading purposes to which the hall was applied were gradually discontinued; but it was not till 1820 that the law-courts were removed from the body of the hall. In that year a range of buildings was commenced on the west side of the hall, by Sir John Soane, the entrances to which are by seven large doorways in the west wall of the hall. These doorways lead to the Court of Chancery, the Vice-Chancellor's Court, the Courts of King's Bench, of Common Pleas, and of Exchequer, the Bail Court, and other offices. These various courts, which were finished in 1825, were erected on the site of the old Exchequer Court, and other offices. We must now proceed to speak of the history and origin of this noble hall.

It is a characteristic feature of all ancient palaces

to have a great hall, which was to be used for banquets, meetings, and other ceremonies, in which the baron or lord of the palace met his retainers, knights, &c. Now Westminster Hall was the great hall of an extensive palace once existing at Westminster, and which comprised within its limits many of those buildings and apartments, some of them presenting beautiful specimens of architecture, which were destroyed at the burning of the houses of parliament, in 1834. We may probably hereafter direct the reader's attention to other parts of the noble pile, once forming the palace; but we must at present confine ourselves to a notice of the hall.

The first mention of the hall occurs in the reign of William Rufus. Matthew Paris, speaking of the year 1099, says:—"In the same year, King William, returning to England from Normandy, held for the first time his court in the *New Hall* at Westminster. Having entered to inspect it, with a large military retinue, some persons remarked that 'it was too large, and larger than it should have been:' the king replied that 'it was not half so large as it should have been, and that it was only a *bed-chamber*, in comparison with the building which he intended to make.'" Another old writer, speaking of the same monarch, says:—"The kynge filled the spiritualite and temporalite with unreasonable taskys, and trybutys, the which he spent upon the *Towre of London*, and the makinge of *Westmynster Hall*." During its construction he had to go to Normandy, and had "moche payne to rule the Normans, for they rebellyd often agayne him;" and on his return, "when he saw the Hall of Westmynster y^e he had caused to be buylded, he was therewith discontented y^e it was so lytle. Wherefore, as it is rehersed of some wryters, he entended, if he had lyued, to have made a larger, and y^e to have served for a chaumber."

From this period the hall was used for the celebration of coronations, meetings of nobles, &c., many accounts of which are to be met with in our old chroniclers. For instance, Holinshed speaks of a feast held there on the occasion of the coronation of Henry, eldest son of Henry the Second, during his father's lifetime, in the year 1170. The coronation ceremony was performed in the Abbey Church, and the feast which succeeded it took place in the hall. "King Henry, upon that daie, served his sonne at the table as server, bringing up the bore's head with trumpets before it, according to the maner. Whereupon, according to the old adage,—

Immutant mores homines cum dantur honores,

the young man, conceiving a pride in his heart, beheld the standers-by with a more stately countenance than he had wont; the Archbishop of Yorke, who sat by him, marking his behaviour, turned unto him, and said, 'Be glad, my good sonne, there is not another prince in the world that hath such a server at his table.' To this the new king answered as it were disdainfullie thus: 'Why doost thou marvell at that? My father, in doing it, thinketh it not more than becometh him: he, being borne of princelie bloude onlie on the mother's side, serveth me that am a king borne, having both a king to my father, and a queene to my mother.' Thus the young man, of an evill and perverse nature, was puffed up in pride, by his father's unseemlie dooinge."

In 1236, there was a feast given in the hall on new year's day, by Henry the Third, to six thousand poor people. Two years afterwards the hall was the scene of a remarkable inundation. On the 10th of February the Thames rose to a great height, the fords became impassable,—the banks were overflowed,—the mills and mill-dams were injured, and the mea-

dows and arable land were flooded. Among other effects of the flood was the inundation of the palace at Westminster. The water was so deep throughout the ground-story, that "the middle of the hall might be passed in boats, and persons rode through it on horseback to their chambers. The water, bursting into the cellars, could scarcely be drawn out again."

In 1241, Henry the Third gave a grand entertainment in the hall to the pope's legate, and other distinguished guests. We are told that the king placed the legate at the head of the table, in the royal seat, but not without the envious and angry glances of many of the guests being directed towards him. The king himself sat on the right of the legate, and the Archbishop of York on the left,—many of the prelates and other great men being seated according to the order of their rank and dignity. This little incident will serve to exemplify the power which the pope had over the sovereigns of England in those days. In the same year Henry bestowed the honor of knighthood on Peter of Savoy, the queen's uncle, and then "feasted most sumptuously an immeasurable multitude of guests, on account of this Peter, and to signalize the acquisition of his new dignity."

We must pass over other meetings in the hall, and mention one which took place on the 23rd of November, 1243, on the occasion of the marriage of the Earl of Cornwall, the king's brother, with Crucia of Provence, sister to the queens both of England and France. On this occasion the tables in the hall are said to have groaned beneath the weight of thirty thousand dishes; and one of our chroniclers busied himself in calculating how much space these dishes must have occupied, supposing them to have been only one foot in diameter. But we may crave the liberty of doubting the accuracy of these details, especially as we all know the power of a cipher in numeration.

We hear of Westminster Hall being a seat of justice so long ago as 1269, when a singular incident occurred. John de Warrenne, earl of Surrey, and Sir Alan la Zouche, appeared before the judges in the hall, for the settlement of a dispute about a manor. Instead of leaving the judges to settle the matter, the two antagonists proceeded from disagreement to abusive language, and from that to blows; upon which the domestics of the earl attacked Sir Alan with drawn weapons, pursued him from the hall into the interior of the palace, and desperately wounded him. The king, who was residing in the palace, heard his cries, and came out to him, and ultimately inflicted a heavy penalty on the earl, but could not prevent Sir Alan from dying of his wounds.

Westminster Hall is connected with the very first act of the reign of the next sovereign (Edward the First,) for he was proclaimed there, on the day after his father's death. Sometime afterwards, when his coronation about to take place, the palace at Westminster underwent a thorough repair, and the hall shared in these repairs with the other parts of the building. One of the rolls in the Remembrancer's office speaks, among other repairs, of "the reparation, emendation, and painting of the Great Hall, against the coronation. The roof, which on either side was dilapidated and decayed, was now in some measure amended; and the great exchequer chamber was repaired and amended in like manner."

A remarkable incident is recorded by Walsingham, as having happened in the hall, at Whitsuntide in 1317:—

This year the king celebrated the feast of Pentecost in the Great Hall at Westminster, where, as he sat in the royal seat at table, in the presence of the great men of his

kingdom, there entered a woman adorned with a theatrical dress, sitting on a fine horse with corresponding trappings, who, after the manner of players, made a circuit round the tables, and at length ascended the steps to the table of the king, and laid before him a certain letter: then, reining back her steed, and saluting the guests, she retired as she came. The king had the letter opened, that he might know its contents, which were as follow:—‘His lordship the king shows little courtly consideration for his knights, who in his father’s time, and in his own, have exposed themselves to various dangers, and have spent or diminished their substance in their service; while others, who have not borne the weight of business, have been abundantly enriched.’ When these things were heard, the guests, looking one upon another, wondered at the boldness of the woman, and the porters or doorkeepers were blamed for having suffered her to enter; but they excused themselves, answering that it was not the custom at the royal palace in any way to prohibit the entrance of players, especially at solemn festivals. Persons were then sent after the woman, who was easily found, taken, and committed to prison; and being required to tell why she had acted in such a manner, she truly replied that she had been induced to do it by a certain knight, for a proper reward. The knight being sent for, and brought before the king, in reply to enquiries, nothing fearing, boldly confessed himself the author of the letter, and avowed that he had consulted the king’s honor in what he had done. Therefore the knight by his constancy rendered himself deserving of the king’s favour, with abundant gifts, and the woman was released from prison.

In another paper we shall bring down these historical details to later dates.

HEAT.

In our present position on the globe, we are indebted, under Providence, to heat for most of our comforts and enjoyments. Nay, our very being, our physical existence, depends upon the presence of this wonderful and powerful agent of nature. Our frame is admirably adapted to the clime which we inhabit, and the varying changes of heat, which constitute all the vicissitudes of climate and seasons we are calculated either to withstand or to enjoy. Heat is the sole cause which sets in motion a thousand sources of exuberance and fertility, producing an universal burst of joy and gladness at the approach of the new-born Spring;—which clothes the earth in its beautifully-variegated Summer robe;—and which prepares the riches of Autumn to fill the storehouses of living creatures, thus providing for that season, when, by a diminution of heat, the earth and the waters are bound up in ice and snow; when the vegetable world is leafless, and fixed in the torpor of apparent death; until heat again becomes present to us in more abundant quantities, (for we must not suppose that heat is entirely absent even from the coldest bodies,) and Spring comes round again. Thus the seasons return with the year, the duration of each being modified by the particular position we may refer to on the surface of the globe.

Heat is everywhere present: it is within us, and around us; it produces the immense varieties of the animal, the vegetable, and the mineral world. The very air we breathe, owes its form and elasticity to heat. Water we know may be a solid, a liquid, or an air, according as heat is distributed in it. By means of heat we get our implements of art, science, or domestic life. Without the artificial aid of heat, our food would be insipid, and often destitute of nourishment. In short, all the offices and contrivances of man, of the other animals and of vegetables, are made with especial reference to this all-pervading principle; and yet Science, which never blushes to own her ignorance, knows absolutely nothing of heat, except by its effects. The cause of heat is unknown; but its

effects are most abundant; and these have been collected and generalized with so much industry and scientific skill as to form a distinct science, the study of which is not only useful, but indispensable to any one who desires to investigate the beautiful phenomena of the material world.—*TOMLINSON’S Student’s Manual of Natural Philosophy.*

PARISH SURVEYS

UNDER THE NEW POOR LAW ACT, THE TITHE-COMMUTATION ACT, AND THE PAROCHIAL ASSESSMENTS ACT.

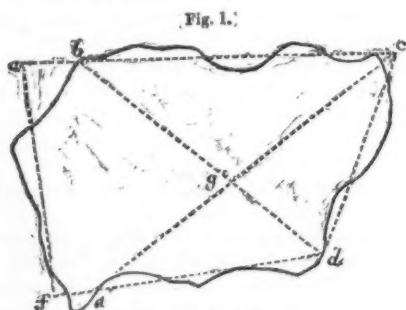
IN consequence of the passing of the three above-named acts of parliament, many parishes have found it expedient to have their lands measured and mapped, and accordingly issued public advertisements for competent persons to survey them, and furnish maps and plans, agreeably to the form pointed out by the tithe commissioners for England and Wales.

In some parts of the country it now appears that a portion (but rather a small one) of the parishes have been measured and mapped within the last thirty or forty years, some of them by persons fully competent to make accurate surveys, and maps too; and yet in several cases where surveys of this sort have been strictly examined, it has now transpired that there has been gross inaccuracy, or something worse. Formerly, when a parish was surveyed, the inhabitants had no means of testing the principles upon which the work had been performed, nor of examining the length of the lines chained by the surveyor, it being quite optional with him whether or not he acted honestly. But under the operation of the present acts of parliament, the case is different; for the authorities make it a rule that all the measured (chained) lines of the field-book shall be inserted upon the map, in party-coloured ink, the numbers and lengths of the lines being marked thereon accordingly. By this means, when the working plan (as the first or plotted plan is called) is sent to the commissioners’ office for their inspection and approval, they have only to apply a properly-divided scale to the chained lines in order to test the accuracy of the map-work. But this is not all that they require, for the surveyor’s field-book has to be sent in accompanying the map, so that by an inspection of the field-book and a reference to the map, any attempts of the surveyor to accommodate his lines to the dimensions of the paper, or the spaces on the paper to the quantities in the field-book, can be easily detected. Formerly this was the case; for as the surveyor kept the field-book in his own possession, the only method of testing the accuracy of his work was by a re-measurement, a process, in large and expensive surveys, scarcely ever resorted to.

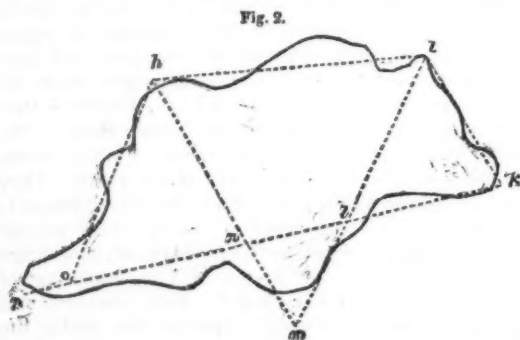
Many persons in the habit of surveying land in moderate quantities, such as separate enclosures, or even small farms, know little or nothing of the principles of practical geometry; and yet the only true theory of land surveying is based upon a series of *triangulation*. In short, it matters not whether it be a parish or a county that the surveyor is engaged upon, since the work, when completed, will be nothing more than a series of triangles, or other geometrical angular figures, based one upon the other. But in extensive surveys it is necessary, or at the least very desirable, that there should be something more than a numerous succession of small triangles, trapeziums, trapezoids, &c., such as are commonly used in measuring single fields or enclosures; and, therefore, a few larger geometrical figures (mostly triangles) en-

compassing the whole, or greater portion, of the lands to be surveyed, are first run out as a sort of *frame-work*, afterwards filling up each of the larger divisions with a series of such small figures as the practised surveyor considers the best adapted for the completion of the whole.

The annexed figures are sketches of two parishes, of different shapes, the black lines indicating the boundaries, and the dotted lines the *frame-work* which a competent surveyor would at the first run out, (provided no obstacle intervened to prevent his doing so;) although it will appear obvious to persons acquainted with such matters, that the lines might have begun, and intersected each other, at other parts of the parish, and yet have answered the surveyor's purpose quite as well, or very nearly so.



The practice pursued by many of the most eminent surveyors at present engaged in parish surveys, is that of running *two* diagonals, where the shape and nature of the survey will admit of it, and boundary or *tie*-lines by which the extremities of the diagonals are confined to their proper positions. By this means the main figures represent triangles, or figures which, by running other *proof*-lines, may easily be reduced to such. In this system of triangulation there is no use made of any instrument to ascertain the bearing or angle; for if (as in fig. 1) the extremities of the two diagonals are connected by the line *cd*, all the other points of intersection must agree with the field-book, if the lines have been accurately measured; and the *tie*-line *af* will prove the whole to be correct.



In fig. 2 there cannot properly be said to be any diagonal, since the several dotted lines reduce it to triangles, and the lines *hm*, *im*, intersecting the boundary line *kp*, with their extremities tied together by the line *hi*, prove the whole of the other lines to be correct, provided the dimensions agree with the field-book. It may be remarked, that although the recently-passed acts of parliament before referred to authorize the surveyor to continue his lines beyond the limits of the parish he is engaged in surveying, "where it is considered necessary," that it is better to avoid doing so as much as possible; since farmers in the adjoining parishes always consider it a hardship

to have their fences broken down and their crops injured, by surveyors whom they consider as having no business whatever with the parishes in which their lands happen to be situated.

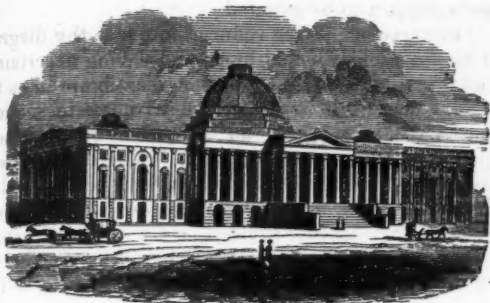
The surveyor having reduced to paper the diagram of his main or principal lines, and having ascertained that they all exactly fit and agree, commences the regular field-work in one of the triangles or sections of the diagram, which he completes by piecemeal, before he commences another. Where these sections are very large, he probably will be induced to run several lines across them, in various directions, whereby they become divided into a series of distinct mathematical figures, such as may best answer the purpose for completing the survey in a business-like manner.

The chain (four rods, or sixty-six feet, in length) is the principal instrument in use in the present extensive parish surveys; and it is undoubtedly better calculated for accuracy and despatch than any other instrument. But in large woods, and where the ground is hilly and broken, the theodolite is commonly called into use, otherwise much time and labour would be consumed in cutting *washes* (openings) through the woods, in order to secure by proof or *tie*-lines, those points where the direction or bearing of the lines is necessarily changed. In chaining lines of several miles in length, great care and accuracy are required. Hence the surveyor has to test the length of his chain daily; and without he has old and trustworthy chainmen his attention to his assistants is continually called for.

Since the passing of the acts of parliament, under which the present surveys are executed, it has been ascertained that there is not a sufficient number of practical surveyors in the country to measure and map all the parishes within the time that had been calculated upon by the commissioners under those acts, in consequence of which they are *forcing* but a limited number of parishes upon the immediate attention of surveyors. The common prices for accurate surveys vary from 8d. to 15d. per acre, according to the situation and nature of the ground, for which, besides the field-work, the surveyor has to supply the stationary, make a *plotted* plan, and *one* or *two* *finished* plans, according to previous arrangement between the parties. These maps are usually plotted from a scale of three chains to the inch, or 264 inches to the mile. Where it is tolerably good surveying, from sixty to eighty acres may be considered an average day's work; where it is very good, one hundred acres; but where the fences are crooked, and the enclosures small, (including some farm buildings) forty acres is not a very bad day's work. But the field-work is not quite half of the whole performance; for besides plotting the first plan, and making one or two finished ones, the contents of each separate parcel or enclosure have to be calculated by the scale, and a couple of reference-books made out, one for the use of the parish, and the other for the commissioners. When all this has been performed, then the field-books, the reference-book, and the *plotted* plan are forwarded to the commissioners, when they are carefully examined in all their details; and should they be found deficient in accuracy, in any way whatever, they are returned to the surveyor for explanation and correction. And it is not until the commissioners are fully satisfied with the performance that they seal them with their seal of office, and return the plan to be copied, (if that had not been done previously;) and afterwards the field-books, reference-books, and plotted plan, are finally deposited in the commissioners' offices in Somerset House.

J. B. B.

THE CITY OF WASHINGTON, IN THE UNITED STATES.



HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY, WASHINGTON.

THE annexed cut represents the central seat of government for the United States of America, situated in the city of Washington, in the district of Columbia.

The district of which we have just spoken is, in its origin and purpose, a remarkable one. It consists of a small portion of two of the large districts or states, cut off from them, separated from their jurisdiction, and entirely under the control of Congress, or the House of Commons of America. The object seems to have been, to secure the members of congress,—the functionaries of the federal government,—from the local jurisdiction of any single state, and from all collision with its authorities. Consequently, the legislature arranged that a small district should exist out of the control of any of the states; that the inhabitants of this district should not have votes for congress; that they should be under the immediate government of congress; and that the House of Assembly should be built in this district. All which has been done.

The district of Columbia is a square, measuring ten miles each way. The river Potomac runs through the middle of it, and the district consists of a portion taken from Maryland on the north of the river, and another portion taken from Virginia on the south. The whole district contains about forty thousand inhabitants, and three towns, Alexandria, Georgetown, and Washington. It is in the last-mentioned town that the magnificent House of Assembly is built.

The House of Assembly, or, as it is more commonly called, the Capitol, is a building of great magnificence, as the cut will sufficiently indicate. It is situated on rising ground, about eighty feet above the tide-water of the Potomac. It presents a frontage six hundred and twenty-two feet in length, with a colonnade of two hundred and sixty feet, and sixteen Corinthian columns thirty-one feet and a half in height. The elevation of the dome is one hundred and fifty feet, the basement story twenty, the entablature seven, the parapet six and a half. The centre of the building, from the east to the west portico, is about two hundred and forty feet long. The ceiling is vaulted; and the whole edifice consists of solid masonry of hewn stone, which in appearance resembles our Portland stone. The north wing, which contains the senate chamber, has the form of a segment, with a double arched dome, and Ionic pillars. The south wing, containing the House of Representatives, and rooms for transacting business by committees, is of a circular form, adorned with twenty-four Corinthian pillars, behind which are galleries and lobbies for the accommodation of those who listen to the debates. The interior of the building was originally of wood, but stone was afterwards substituted. This magnificent edifice was the joint

production of several architects, Thornton, Latrobe, Hallet, and Hatfield.

Stuart, in his *Three Years in North America*, says,—

The more I saw it [the Capitol] the more imposing it appeared. The building covers an acre and a half of ground, and has cost three millions of dollars. The great rotunda, which is ninety-six feet in diameter, by ninety-six feet high, is the principal entrance hall, leading to the legislative halls and their library. The panels of the circular walls are appropriated to paintings and to basso-relievos of historical subjects, of which the landing of the pilgrims in New England, William Penn's treaty with the Indians, the Assembly at Philadelphia, at which the declaration of Independence was signed, the surrender of General Burgoyne, the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, and the resignation of General Washington, are the principal.

At a short distance from the capitol is the house of the President of the United States; a noble building a hundred and seventy feet in length, and eighty-five in breadth.

Some of our readers may not be familiar with the peculiar features of the government of the United States: a few words on this point will not be out of place here. The president and vice-president of the United States are elected for the term of four years, and live at Washington during the sitting of congress; but at other times live where they please. The president's house belongs to the nation, and is held by the presidents in succession; but the vice-president has no house provided for him. The president receives a salary of twenty-five thousand dollars per annum; and the vice-president, five thousand. The president is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and also of the militia. He is authorized to require, whenever he thinks fit, the written opinions of the various officers of government, on any point of public policy. He has the power, in conjunction with the senate, to make treaties, appoint ambassadors, ministers, consuls, judges, military officers, and other functionaries who are not appointed by fixed laws; for any of these appointments to be valid, two-thirds of the senate must accede to them. He has the power, on extraordinary occasions, to remove functionaries from their offices, without consulting the senate; and he himself is liable to removal from his office by impeachment and conviction of anything which is held to amount to treason.

The congress consists of two parts, a senate, and a house of representatives. The number of representatives amounts to about two hundred, and they are elected every two years. Members must be twenty-five years of age, citizens of the United States, and inhabitants of the states which elect them. The senate consists of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature for the term of six years. They are not chosen at the same time, but the election is so managed that one-third is chosen every second year. A senator must be thirty years old, nine years a citizen of the United States, and an inhabitant of the state in which he is elected. Both senators and representatives receive six dollars per day during the sitting of congress, besides travelling expenses, which are fixed at the rate of a day's pay for every twenty miles. The public business in congress is almost always prepared by permanent committees, which are appointed by the speaker at the beginning of each session. When a new measure is submitted to congress, it is sent, in the first place, to one of the committees named at the beginning of the session; and the report which the committee makes is in most cases adopted without further discussion. If, however, it be not agreed to at once, and a debate ensue, the time allotted is the period from twelve to three o'clock in the day, unless a special order be made for

continuing the debate for a longer period, which often happens at the end of a session. If many speakers desire to offer their remarks, adjournments take place from day to day; and the same subject may be the sole public matter in dispute for many weeks. But the other public topics are not neglected meanwhile; for the committees sit in the morning and the evening, and arrange and forward those bills which are not the subject of debate. Almost all the members are engaged the whole day, during the session, either in attending committees, or the debates of the house.

It may naturally be supposed, that the city or town where the legislative meetings of the nation are held, must derive an importance from this circumstance, independent of any other; for the senators and representatives from every part of the United States dwell there during the continuance of the session, (which begins early in December, and lasts generally nearly six months.) Washington derives much of its importance from this circumstance, and also much from the excellent plan in which it is built. The streets are arranged in a very singular manner: with the exception of fifteen, the whole of them are arranged due north and south, or east and west, crossing one another at right angles. The fifteen excepted from this rule, point in a direct line towards the fifteen principal states of the republic; the Capitol and the president's house being the points from whence they emanate towards every side of the city. None of the streets are less than ninety feet broad, and one of them, Pennsylvania-street, is a hundred and sixty feet wide, and a mile in length, and reaches from the Capitol to the president's house.

We may observe, in concluding this paper, that as it was found inconvenient to have no fixed meridian line in North America, from which to measure longitudes, a line drawn through the centre of the Capitol at Washington has been made the first meridian for this purpose; and exact calculations have been made of the longitudinal distance from thence to the meridian of Greenwich, from which English reckonings are made.

If there were any real difficulty in determining the best means of developing the body and preventing deformity, the comparison of savage with civilized man would at once remove it. An intelligent old author, in describing the Caribs of 170 years ago, says, in a tone of regret, "They do not swaddle their infants, but leave them to tumble about at liberty in their little hammocks, or on beds of leaves, spread on the earth in a corner of their huts, and NEVERTHELESS their limbs do not become crooked, and their whole body is perfectly well made!" And again, "ALTHOUGH the little creatures are left to roll about on the ground in a state of nudity, they NEVERTHELESS grow marvellously well, and most of them become so robust as to be able to walk without support at six months old."

The naïveté of this expression of surprise at the little Caribs growing MARVELLOUSLY WELL with the assistance of Nature alone, and without the use of stays and bandages, imported from Europe, is extremely amusing, and shows to what extent prejudice and custom, once established, will continue to prevail, even where we have before our eyes the strongest evidence of their being hurtful. Our excellent author seems never to have allowed the thought to enter his head, that the Europeans produced the deformity by means of swaddling and bandages, and that the Caribs escaped it, simply by avoiding its causes, and giving liberty to both body and limbs.—COMBE.

LABOUR is become necessary to us, not only because we need it for making provisions for our life, but even to ease the labour of our rest, there being no greater tediousness of spirit in the world than want of employment and an inactive life.—JEREMY TAYLOR.

THE SEAT OF WAR IN THE EAST.

I. AFGHANISTAN.

THE various tracts of country which are already, or may yet become, the theatre of a war between the Anglo-Indian army, and that of native tribes, are of a highly diversified character. Mountains, whose summits are the highest discovered land in the world; sandy deserts, surrounding flourishing towns and busy populations, with extensive remains of the architectural grandeur and magnificence of ancient nations, combine to render the country between Hindustan and Persia one possessing the highest claims to attention and interest.

The principal encampment of the British army is at present on the banks of a tributary stream of the Indus, called the Sutledge, in Punjab, a kingdom which, with the Sinde, or Indian Delta, forms part of the western limit of British India. The territory in dispute, however, is Cabùl, or that portion of Afghanistan the furthest from the Anglo-Indian Empire. Hence, should the war be continued, the following places will be involved in it.

1st. The country of the Afghans, which includes Cabùl; 2nd. Beloochistan; 3rd. Sinde; 4th. Punjab; through which two last places flows the river Indus. Of these districts it is our purpose to give a rapid topographical sketch, and then afford some account of the people who inhabit them.

AFGHANISTAN is divided almost solely according to the tribes distributed over it. The most powerful of these are the *Berdooranees*, the *Ghilgies*, and the *Dooraunees*. The whole territory is enclosed between that western portion of the immense Himalaya chain which is called Hindoo Koosh, and rising above Cabùl is its northern boundary, dividing it from Bokhara; the river Indus limits the Afghan country on the east, the Arabian sea on the south, and on the west it is divided from the Persian empire by a winding line, drawn along the desert boundaries of Kerman and Khorassan.

The whole country may be shortly described as consisting of mountains, rapid rivers, and high tablelands, in the north,—of sandy and salt deserts on the south. The mountains which, continuing in one unbroken chain, form the whole of its northern boundary, have no parallel in any other region of the globe. Their summits are covered with perpetual snow, though only in the thirty-fourth degree of latitude; the most elevated of them which has yet been observed rising to a height of 20,593 feet. The whole of this stupendous range has not been as yet explored; and it is thought that the same chain extends without interruption westward, till it links with Mount Elburz, and thus joins the Taurus and Russian Caucasus.

Other mountain lines traverse in every direction the territories of Cabùl and Beloochistan, always proceeding from the main one. The southern regions *Seistan*, *Beloochistan*, and *Mekram*, consist partly of mountains, low but rugged, and partly of vast deserts of loose sands.

To this bare outline of the physical features of Afghanistan, we must now add a few particulars concerning the various tracts of which it forms an aggregate. Commencing northward, the first place of consideration is

HERAT, which, with some portion of country around it, properly belongs to the Persian province of Khorassan, but now possesses an independent government, under Shah Kamrou, who belongs to a dynasty claiming the sovereignty of the kingdom of Cabùl, at present usurped by Dost Mohammed Khan.

Herat is the finest and most populous city in this district. It is situated on an elevated, extensive, and fertile plain, and is the emporium of trade between Persia and the east, which is chiefly carried on by 10,000 Hebrews and 600 Hindoos, who inhabit the city. It is well fortified, as recent events have proved; having resisted with effect the efforts of a Russo-Persian army to besiege it.

THE PROVINCE OF CABUL is chiefly occupied by the Afghan tribe of the Ghilgies, though the Dooranees are masters of the country. The City of Cabul is the capital of all Afghanistan, and is reckoned one of the most delightful in the world. It is situated on a large well-watered plain, 6000 feet above the level of the sea, over which are scattered innumerable villages, the Cabul river and three rivulets running through it. Cabul is a busy bustling city, and boasts of a bazaar almost unrivalled, for it contains no fewer than 2000 shops. The houses are mostly built of wood, on account of frequent earthquakes. The gardens surrounding the city produce the most delicious fruits, which are exported, chiefly to India.

The town is encompassed on three sides by hills, and on one of these is the tomb of the emperor Baber, adorned with large beds of flowers, and commanding a noble prospect. On another eminence is the palace of Dost Mohammed Khan, which is also delightfully situated. The population of Cabul has been estimated at 60,000 souls.

East of Cabul is an almost circular plain, about thirty miles in diameter, surrounded by the Hindoo Koosh and Soliman mountains, on every side except to the east, where there is an opening of fifteen miles in width. The beauty and fertility of this plain can hardly be exceeded: well watered, it always presents a verdant aspect; and being preserved in a high state of cultivation, produces a variety of choice fruits.

PESHAWUR, the capital of Cabul previous to its late dismemberment, is placed in this valley; it has a circumference of five miles, and was at one time the most considerable town of Afghanistan. Recently, however, it has much declined; and out of 100,000 inhabitants, which were formerly collected within its walls, only 50,000 remain.

The varied costumes which greet the eye of the traveller in the streets of Peshawur, have been likened to a masquerade; for the natives of the surrounding mountains mingled with those of Persia, India, and Tartary, present, in their dresses, a motley contrast, which is not the less picturesque. The houses are built of brick, and are about three stories high; the streets are narrow and slippery, but paved, and have a gutter in the centre. During the spring a portion of Peshawur is flooded, which, at that season, renders it an unwholesome residence.

But the most celebrated of the cities of Cabul is GHIZNI, once the proud capital of an empire that reached from the Tigris to the Ganges. In this city Mohammed, the conqueror of India, placed his throne, and reared the most splendid buildings in Asia; remains of which still bear testimony of former splendour. The most remarkable of these are two lofty minarets, and the tomb of Mohammed. The tomb-stone is of white marble, and on it is placed the mace of the conqueror, which is so heavy that few men can wield it. Mohammedan priests are still maintained there to read the Koran over the grave.

The present city is but a wreck of the former one. All to be learnt about it is,—that its streets are dark and narrow; the houses, of which there are only 1500, small; and the bazaars by no means spacious.

BAMEEAN, on the northern slope of the mountains, and bordering on Tartary, is a city cut out of a rock,

whose cavern abodes are scattered over a surface of eight miles. It contains some remarkable temples with colossal idols.

From Ghizni, one of the most ancient oriental cities, we turn to one of the most modern, CANDAHAR, which, although erected on the site of a town built by Alexander the Great, dates its present origin at no earlier period than 1754, when it was rebuilt by Ahmed Shah, who made it the seat of government, which was removed to Cabul by Timour Shah, in 1774. Unlike the plan of many eastern towns, that of Candahar is perfectly regular, and is oblong in shape. In the centre there is a circular range of buildings, fifty yards in diameter, surmounted by a large dome; this is the public market-place, and is called the *Choursoo*. Four principal streets are fifty yards in width, all lined with shops, and meet in the Choursoo, their other extremities reaching to the gates of the city. All the smaller streets cross the principal ones at right angles, and are perfectly straight, but narrow, and have a canal running through each of them. The tomb of Ahmed Shah, covered by a gilt cupola, stands near the king's palace, and is held as a sacred asylum, the king himself not daring to take a criminal from it. Though the inhabitants of Candahar are Afghans, they have conformed to the habits of the Persians.

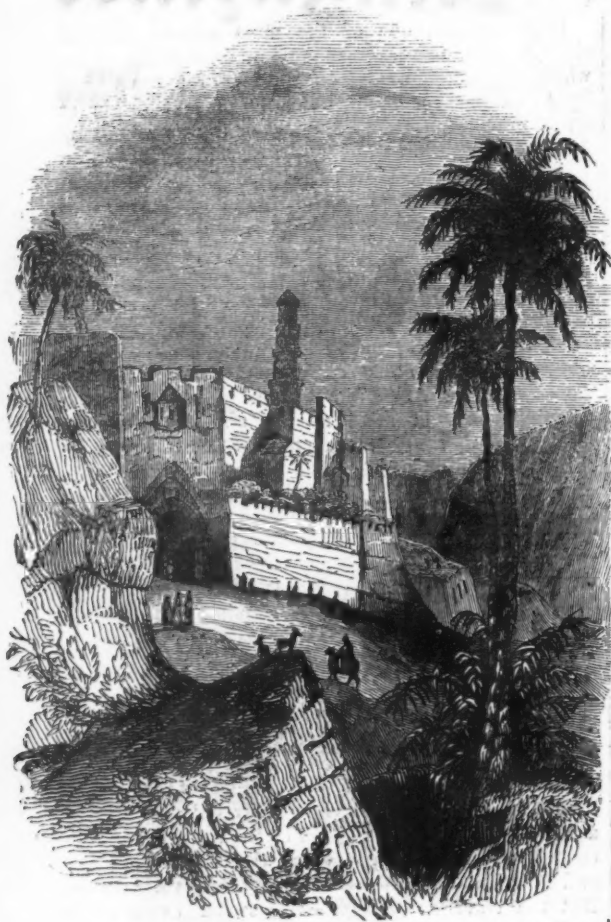
The south-east corner of the kingdom of Cabul is occupied by the tribe called *Cankers*; they are peaceable, and do not possess the predatory propensities of their neighbours.

The south-west portion of this country forms the province of SEISTAN, traversed by the river Helmund. Persian stories and songs celebrate this district as one of the finest regions of the East; but at the present time it exhibits a sad reverse. With the exception of a narrow belt along the banks of the river, it consists entirely of sandy plains, over which a few Afghan and Belooch shepherds occasionally drive their flocks. But the traveller readily believes the extravagant praises bestowed upon Seistan by eastern poets, when, at short intervals, he comes upon the remains of extensive temples and the ruins of superb palaces, but which aptly exemplify the scriptural parable of the folly of building houses upon sand. The province is surrounded on every side by those vast deserts that stretch from the Eastern frontiers of Persia; and the wind blowing from thence during a great part of the year, brings with it clouds of light shifting sand, which convert the fields into an arid waste, and gradually bury beneath them gardens, villages, and the monuments of ancient grandeur scattered over the plains. The city of Seistan and the town of Dooshak are situated in this district.

The southern part of the Cabul territory is composed of a desert of red moving sand, so light and minute as to be almost impalpable; the action of the wind forms it into wall-like ridges of peculiar structure;—one side slopes gradually away, but the other rises perpendicularly, like a brick wall, to a considerable height, and which the traveller must be at the pains to scale before he can pursue his journey.

ALL to whom want is terrible, upon whatever principle, ought to think themselves obliged to learn the sage maxims of our parsimonious ancestors, and attain the salutary arts of contracting expense; for without economy none can be rich, and with it few can be poor. The mere power of saving what is already in our hands must be of easy acquisition to every mind; and, as the example of Lord Bacon may show that the highest intellect cannot safely neglect it, a thousand instances every day prove that the humblest may practise it with success.—*The Rambler*.

THE VALLEY OF JEHOSEPHAT.



THIS ancient burying-place of the Jewish people possesses much interest, on account of its vicinity to and connection with Jerusalem, and also for the very general belief of the Jews to this day, that here the prophecy of Joel (chap. iii., 2—12) concerning the final judgment of all nations, will be literally fulfilled. The followers of Mahomet are also looking for the appearance of their prophet in this identical spot; and it is even said that they have prepared for him a seat on the ledge of a rock, from whence they expect to receive sentence at his hands. This valley has been for ages the favourite burying-place of the Jews, who at the present time will give a large sum of money for permission to inter their dead in the tomb of their fathers. The valley of Jehoshaphat is also called in Scripture "the valley of Shaveh," "the Kings' dale or valley," and "the valley of Melchizedek." It is a deep and narrow glen, on the east of Jerusalem, having on one side Mount Moriah, on the other the Mount of Olives.

The aspect of the valley is sad and desolate: the brook Cedron flows through it from north to south, and shows, by the dull red tint it assumes, that it has partaken of the nature of the soil over which it passes. The name of this brook, and of the neighbouring Mount of Olives, recall to mind the most touching event of all which are recorded in the sacred writings, viz., the bitter suffering and anguish of soul endured by the Saviour of men on the night previous to his crucifixion, an anguish little to be understood by those who, not being partakers of his sinless nature, cannot possibly conceive of the extent of suf-

fering induced by the imputation of the sins of a whole world, and the wrath of an offended God. The Mount of Olives is barren and sombre in its appearance: here and there a few black and withered vines may be seen on its sides; there are also several tufts of stunted olive-trees, while ruins of chapels, oratories, and mosques, increase the air of desolation with which these scenes are marked.

Among the tombs of the valley of Jehoshaphat, there is one of extraordinary size, which is called "the sepulchre of the Blessed Virgin." It is the largest of all the caves in the vicinity of Jerusalem, and was doubtless hewn out for the burial of some person of distinguished rank, or of high estimation among the people. The traveller Pococke thinks it likely to have been the burial-place of Melisendis, queen of Jerusalem; the authorities for assigning it to the Virgin Mary are very questionable, and it appears improbable that the early Christians should have had it in their power to erect so magnificent a tomb to her memory. In this cave the Christian sects have each an altar, and even the Turks have an oratory. There are also appropriate chapels in the same cave, to mark the supposed tombs of Joseph, the husband of Mary, and of her parents, Joachim and Anna.

The descent to the cave is by a flight of fifty marble steps, each step being twenty feet wide. These are supposed by Dr. Clarke to be of equal antiquity with the cave itself, though no era can be fixed on with certainty as the date of their construction. There are other sepulchres, said to be those of Jehoshaphat, Absalom, St. James, Zachariah, &c., some of them adorned by columns, which appear to support the edifice, but are in fact hewn out from the solid rock into architectural forms. That of Absalom exhibits twenty-four semi-columns of the Doric order, not fluted; six on each front of the monument. The sepulchre of Jehoshaphat, said to have been prepared by order of that king, as the place of his own interment, and from which the valley takes its name, is a grot, the door of which is finely executed, and is its chief ornament.

Across the brook Cedron is a bridge, of a single arch, called St. Stephen's, which is, however, unnecessary during the greater part of the year; for the Cedron dries up, and leaves a perfectly dry channel, excepting after the fall of heavy rains. The barrenness of the whole scene, the silence of the neighbouring city of Jerusalem, the ruinous state of the tombs, with the remembrances connected with this spot, are indeed sufficient to excite a melancholy interest in the valley of Jehoshaphat.

THE general desire for education, and the general diffusion of it, is working, and partly has worked, a great change in the habits of the mass of the people. And though it has been our lot to witness some of the inconveniences necessarily arising from the transition state, where gross ignorance has been superseded by a somewhat too rapid communication of instruction, dazzling the mind, perhaps, rather than enlightening it, yet every day removes something of this evil. Presumption and self-sufficiency are sobered down by the acquirement of useful knowledge, and men's minds become less arrogant in proportion as they better informed. There cannot be a doubt, therefore, but that any evils which may have arisen from opening the flood-gates of education, if I may so say, will quickly flow away, and that a clear and copious stream will succeed, fertilizing the heretofore barren intellect with its wholesome and perennial waters.—BISHOP RYDER.

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